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Abstract

In this practical handbook for teachers of English to adult speakers of other languages, the author stresses the TESOL teacher's need to know about various teaching methods and techniques and how to evaluate materials in order to be able to select and develop a style of teaching compatible with the expectations and needs of his students. Such topics as second language learning, variation in teachers and students of English as a second language, TESOL methodology and materials, and evaluation of TESOL materials, students, and teachers are discussed and detailed suggestions are presented for the classroom teacher. A selected bibliography of TESOL materials, prepared by the author for the Bureau of Adult Education of the California State Department of Education, is appended. (AMM)

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A HANDBOOK FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO NON-ENGLISH SPEAKING ADULTS

by PATRICIA HEFFERNAN-CABRERA

AL 002 129

Foreword

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Introduction

We frequently comment that the students who come to us who do not speak English have PROBLEMS. But all would agree that they come to us with more than "an intricate or unsettled question." Rather than considering the problems of the non-English speaker, let us consider that those adults who come to us who do not speak English have NEEDS; i.e., "a lack of something requisite, desirable, and useful; a pressing lack of something essential."

The recognition of the needs of students to learn English has long been recognized and accommodated in the various Americanization and citizenship classes; however, the lengthier learning period and a lesser degree of speaking ability (dictated by a more traditional methodology of reading and filling in blanks) is no longer reconcilable with the needs of the learner as he challenges a economic-educational-societal world.

It used to be that anyone who spoke English was considered a candidate for the teaching of English to speakers of other languages; and if he was either an English teacher or a primary teacher, so much the better. For years this type of teaching afforded after-hours-moonlighting income; however, improved foreign language methodology based upon the acceptance of the science of linguistics, the application of certain principles of educational psychology, and the international involvement of our government have caused the evolvement of a new pedagogue: one who specializes in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages.

This pedagogue recognizes that the non-English speaking person in our society wants to learn the language quickly and thoroughly. Personal dignity and the desire for social acceptance and social equality as well as economic pressures reinforce these desires. Modern language teaching techniques and

a well-designed curriculum in the hands of the dedicated teacher will bring about the fulfillment of those desires.

The purpose of this publication is to pull together ideas, procedures, opinions, and materials which have evolved out of one person's experiences of the last ten years, encompassing such experiences as TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) on television to several thousand Cuban refugees in Miami, coordinating the instructional programming for several thousand more non-English speakers in adult education programs, serving as the consultant to the California State Department of Education on matters of TESOL for Mexican-American adults and developing and teaching the Certificate and Degree Program for TESOL teachers at the University of Southern California.

It is my opinion that the TESOL teacher should know about each technique and method and should be able to evaluate materials, thereby selecting and developing a style of teaching compatible with the expectations and needs of his students. Therefore, we shall think through such topics as who teaches TESOL and who is taught, how do we teach it, what do we teach, and how can we evaluate what we have taught.

Chapter I

The WHY and the WHO of TESOL teaching

Let us first consider what language is and how it is learned.

What is language? Everybody speaks it. Language, like dreaming, is a process: in its practice known to all, yet in its theory elusively defying formulation. We do know that language is vocal; that it has a system; that its symbols are arbitrary; that it is for purposes of communication; that it is largely habit; that it changes and evolutes; that there is a relationship between it and the culture in which it is used; that no two languages have the same sets of pronunciation patterns, structure patterns and syntax; that one's native language interferes with the later-learning of another language and that there are methods of analyzing and describing languages.

Let us, then, begin with a contemporary proposal that language is primarily audio and lingual; or that language is primarily talk. We know that there are hundreds of languages which are spoken and understood by the members of a given speech community, but that these same languages may not be written and therefore may not be read. This evidence leads us to the conclusion that languages are first understood and spoken, and may be written and read, depending upon the level of sophistication of the participants. If we accept this concept of language, we can then accept the audiolingual methodology which establishes as a hierarchy of skills, understanding, speaking, reading, and writing--to be taught in that order.

Language has been defined as a stream of sounds organized into meaningful structures by members of a given speech community for purposes of communication. This is true whether these members speak Spanish or German or any of the strange exotic languages prevalent among the teenage set. Therefore, language is primarily understanding and speaking. Reading and writing

are the graphic reinforcements of the spoken language. It should be noted that only through the graphic reinforcements can language be freed from the present and the immediate. We do teach reading and writing when using the audiolingual approach, but within a defined structure of methodology; i.e., the student is not asked to say that which he does not understand because he cannot hear it. He is not asked to read something before he can understand it and say it; and he is not asked to write something before he can understand it, say it, and associate the writing to the reading.

Languages are learned through use. However, it is not exact to say that adults learn languages just as children do, because there is ego involvement which causes a certain amount of inhibition. And there is not the free choice which a child enjoys, because at least one language system of the adult has already been selected and reinforced and therefore will cause interference.

The teacher of English as a second language has the responsibility of creating a climate of learning in which the student will know success in handling the language skills. The learner will have completely committed himself to the use of the language, and he will use that language without thought. His teacher will have carefully prepared him through presentation and practice to achieve this success. We tell our students that we are going to teach them to think in English, when, in essence, we teach them "not to think;" that is to say, the teacher is challenged to provide the learner with the skills of language manipulation which will allow the learner to participate freely, creatively, and automatically in the communication process. As teachers, we no longer spend hours with our students analyzing the "why" of the structure of American English, committing rules to memory

(the noun is the name of a person, place or thing), but through active participation on the part of the student we learn the word order of American English and that nouns - as a case in point - can be pluralized, can show possession, can be used with determiners such as A and THE, can be used in a certain order in a sentence, and may receive a particular pattern stress when used orally.

The use of controlled sentence patterns, controlled introduction of pronunciation variations and vocabulary items, and the audiolingual method have long made the teaching of English a highly specialized task which is demanding but most rewarding. New words, new idioms, new sounds, and new sentence patterns are incorporated daily into the student's vocabularies so that progress is constant, and the student evaluates and is aware of his individual progress. In no other teaching situation with adults is the student so eager to learn, and in few other situations is the teacher's role so important. The public school in the United States has always been the catalyst and the vehicle for bringing together all of the diverse elements in our society and perpetuating and restating the purposes of our social, political, and economic institutions.The English-as-a-second-language teacher must impart knowledge, create self-confidence, teach skills, and guide and counsel a group of adults ranging in age from 18 to 60 (frequently speaking a multitude of languages). To the students, "the teacher" represents the best of America and speaks the ideal American speech. The teacher should always be aware of the central position he temporarily holds in the lives of these students and the dependency on him to explain the bewildering life around them. He is there as an informant not only of the

language but also of the sum total of the ways of thinking and acting, in what is called "American" culture.

The teacher of English-as-a-second-language to adults must be attuned to the values and interests of his students. The 18-year-old has another agenda as well as other capabilities than does the 60-year-old. Your adaptation-to-relevancy of materials is dependent upon your knowing the expectations and aspirations of your students. Individualized programming IS possible in a TESOL class if hardware and teacher-time and energy are available. And even though one may have a heterogenous group with different levels of literacy and aptitude, it is possible to "teach" them. Grouping, the utilizing of peer-tutoring or some such similar technique will make it possible for you to accommodate all of the needs within your group.

You should know something about the cultures represented by the students you teach. It helps you to know if you (a male teacher) can demonstrate voiced and voiceless sounds by grabbing the throat of one of your female-married-of-Latin-American-origin-students.

It is not necessary for the teacher of English as a second language to be fluent in another tongue, but a knowledge of the characteristics of the languages spoken by the students is at least an asset, and some would consider it essential. Such a knowledge will reveal the particular difficulties the students will have in learning English. There are several studies available through ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) which represent contrastive analysis of German, Italian, French and Spanish. For example, an examination and comparison of Spanish and English vowel production will tell you that the Spanish "E" is not the same as the English "A" (in some cases); i.e, that English vowels are either a little tighter (tenser) or a little more relaxed than a Spanish equivalent. We know that the

Spanish speaker does have "A", "E", "I", "O" and "U" as vowel names, but not only are these "named" differently but that, in actuality, in American English are produced as eleven different sounds. The "A" sound in Apple does not exist for the Spanish speaker; he is, therefore, deaf to this sound. There are consonants and consonant blends which will also become the basis for teaching lessons if one delves into a contrastive analysis of the two languages. It is this kind of knowledge that will be important to you.

If the class is of a homogeneous linguistic background, speaking their native language will facilitate such things as classroom management and rapport, but not instruction. And translation is not a "short cut." Total immersion in English for the brief period of time that you have them is to be zealously cherished. And if all of the students do not speak the native language that you may speak to some half of your class, are they not left out and possibly alienated? Minimally and experimentally speaking, the teacher who speaks English can teach English; but to meet the needs of his students, he must do some reading in general linguistics and in the various texts concerning the methodology of teaching English to speakers of other languages. He must accept the linguistic principles that language is speech and that language is habit.

He should do some reading in the psychology of language learning.

He must be culturally sensitive, and aware of how acculturation takes place so that culture will be recognized and accommodated in the plan of language instruction. It would be good at this time to define culture as "a way of life" as opposed to Culture as "the refinements of a society."

He must have skill in preparing drills, in selecting visuals, in preparing evaluative devices, and in evaluating textbooks. (Please note that he need

not be bi- or multi-lingual.) Ideally, the TESOL teacher would be a "languist," a word coined by Nelson Brooks in his book, LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING. A "languist" is one who has a knowledge of the nature and history of language, of linguistic structure and linguistic change, of the structure of English, of the basic facts of human growth and development, and of the psychology of language learning and second language learning. He has a clear understanding of the objectives, methods, materials, and evaluative devices pertinent to the learning of English by the non-English speaker, and has proficiency in classroom procedures and in the use of electro-mechanical aids.

There are others who have responsibilities in the development of programs for teaching English to speakers of other languages. They are the administrators. They need some knowledge of the various methods and techniques which will help the learner arrive at his desired goals; they must understand the need for audiolingual exercise; they should be aware of the need to program English to speakers of other languages apart from the "other kind" of English. They must be able to provide the leadership necessary for developing a cadre of trained teachers of English to speakers of other languages and to provide the opportunity for inservice education. Therefore, it is essential that TESOL teachers share their experiences with their administrators in order to bring more meaningful and productive programming into being.

Teaching English to speakers of other languages provides an opportunity to meet the needs of those people living in this country who are unable to enjoy all the benefits of the free society simply because they lack a certain skill which others of us so casually enjoy. These non-English speakers assume a variety of disguises.

They may be uninhibited, under-twelve-year-olds who need emphasis in hearing, speaking, reading and writing in order to plunge into the main stream of American education.

They may be ego-involved, high school students who also need language skills for the same, and different, reasons.

They may be uninhibited, highly motivated, foreign students who have come to study in the colleges and universities of the United States.

They may be non-English speakers of the community of the Southwest with limited economic doors open to them, who, nontheless, must study English and consequently, subconsciously reject that study.

They may be adult immigrants who also labor under the handicap of needing the language before they can enjoy the fruits of the great society, but who seek this learning enthusiastically. These may represent either the "Brain Drain" or the poor and oppressed of other nations.

They may be first generation, non-English speakers who as poor speakers of the language represent the casualties of a discipline in evolution. Their needs in schools were not met; therefore, they valiantly seek the language skills which will help them up the ladder of socio-economic success.

They may be thousands of stay-at-home-new-to-these-shores people who, as the near kin of the family's economic breadwinner, and members of a colony, do not feel the same needs for language; therefore, they are not motivated to make the long journey into the night. Each individual in each of these groups may have other fears related to the fact that he is illiterate and has never attended school, or that he thinks he is too old.

But all of them have one thing in common--a need for English, and to meet those needs is the challenge.

Chapter II

Some HOW's of TESOL teaching

Materials for teaching TESOL to adults in the United States have incorporated a variety of approaches or "Methods" which evolved after the late thirty's when it became apparent that the Reading and Writing approaches practiced previously in the foreign language classrooms had not taught people to understand and to speak a second language.

Grammar-Reading and Translation gave way to two approaches which seem to dominate the methodology and materials of today. One was the building of situational dialogues (getting a meal, visiting the doctor, etc.) out of which structure practice and vocabulary learning evolved. The other was a structural approach which was based on a contrastive analysis of the target language and the second language, with lessons structured around the points of interference between the two languages. The contributions of behavioral psychologists to learning theory gave rise to the development of techniques such as Mim-Mem (Mimicry-Memorization), Pattern Practice, and Response Reinforcement. The emphasis on oral practice grew out of a greater sophistication relative to language growth and development which subsequently became embodied in the Audiolingual approach which currently is the most commonly used approach.

Robert Lado in his textbook, LANGUAGE TEACHING, A SCIENTIFIC APPROACH (New York: McGraw Hill, Inc., 1964) cites seventeen principles underlying the audiolingual approach. In summary, they are:

1. That we teach listening and speaking before reading and writing (the time lapse to be determined by the "readiness" of the student).
2. That we have students memorize basic sentences in order to compensate for the fact that students have a shorter memory span in a foreign language than in a native one.

3. That we establish patterns as habits. Students must learn to use a language so that ultimately the student is able to order the content words that he needs and deliver them in a structure at the normal speed of communication.

4. That we teach the sound system of the target language (English) in a systematic way.

5. That we hold the vocabulary load to a minimum while students master the word order and the sound system of American English.

6. That we teach the points of interference between the first and second language.

7. That we teach reading and writing as graphic representations of the target language that the student has already learned.

8. That we teach patterns gradually, and cumulatively in graded sequences. This will create artificiality in dialogues unless we develop structures in a microwave format, a technique suggested by Earl Stevick which allows for both mimicry-memorization and communication. (This will be elaborated upon in the chapter on "The WHAT to Teach in TESOL").

9. That students practice the language rather than having it translated for them.

10. That we teach the language as it is most commonly used in the social milieu of the student.

11. That we allow the student to PRACTICE the language during the learning time. (This is sometimes difficult when one reflects upon the subconscious-ego-centered reasons why many of us seek teaching as a career.)

12. That we shape the student response and not allow the student to invent language.

13. That we teach at normal conversational rates of speed; i.e., that neither a slowed-rendition nor an accelerated version is productive for the student.

14. That we give the student immediate reinforcement when he has given a successful response and that we devise techniques for communicating when he has not delivered a successful response (other than overt remonstrances).

15. That we impart a receptive and empathetic attitude toward those who are learning the second language.

16. That we teach the meaning of what we are teaching and the cultural context in which the meaning occurs.

17. That we teach to produce learning as the outcome. We frequently approach adults with a desire to please which manifests itself as "entertainment." Investigation of other cultures will convey to one that most other cultures approach the educational process and those who participate in it with more formality than is customary in American education.

Since we have arrived (hopefully) at a mutual agreement that English as a second language is best taught as a skill rather than as a concept, let us describe certain components which we feel should be present in each daily lesson in order to insure successful learning.

Each lesson should consist of a certain amount of review of the previous lesson since--as has been previously mentioned--the memory span in the foreign language is shorter.

There should also be a certain amount of time spent in teaching pronunciation, which includes the stress, the intonation and the rhythm of American English.

There should be a time for the presentation of the new material; e.g., the structure or pattern for the day, or the vocabulary--introduced in context (in complete sentences in use) rather than as isolated words.

There must be time allowed for practice or drill of those patterns because just as any good typist or trumpet player spends time in practice, so must a competent speaker of a foreign language.

And time must be spent in communicating in those patterns; e.g., kinds of activities, or games, or role playing or cultural dialogues that can be participated in (in whatever limited capacity) which will allow for the usage of those items which have been drilled, cued, and responded to.

On the elementary levels of learning English by those who do not speak it, we find that the learner needs to spend some 80% to 90% of the time in exercises in understanding and speaking English, with a minimal amount of time spent in reading and writing (this in view of the fact that he is not yet ready to begin reading for information, much less for what Charles Fries called "imaginative realization"). He is reading and writing only those things which he can understand and say; hence, the limitation. As the student advances and becomes more proficient in his usage of English, the amount of practice time devoted to understanding and speaking decreases, and he is able to spend his time in utilizing the reinforcement skills of reading and writing.

The review of the previous lesson may be a short pattern drill in which the student responds to or utilizes question-answer-type drills. The pronunciation exercise, in all of its ramifications, may contribute some 10 minutes of each lesson. The presentation should be the time in which we present examples, accomplish a certain amount of drill, and draw conclusions concerning the grammar of that which we have presented.

The foregoing should allay the fears of those who feel that the audiolingual approach does not teach grammar. Heretofore, we have

presented our prescription or rules for grammar, and then have attempted to make the examples fit; whereas, in the audiolingual approach to grammar instruction, the examples are presented initially, and in a controlled manner, with deduction as to the grammar itself taking place later.

But one must be certain that he does not end here. The next step in the language learning process is very important--the time for drill.

The various techniques whereby the student can be led into automaticity are worthy of elaboration. We can divide the patterns of the language into a small number of stimuli, and thereby elicit a small number of responses gradually building up to total usage. When this becomes unbearable, we can divert the student by seeming to drill on other ideas meanwhile reinforcing a most complex pattern. Of course, the problem is to keep the student (and teacher) alive and interested. This will depend not only upon the variety of drilling techniques but also upon the creative application of the patterns. There must be complete commitment on the part of teacher and pupil as to the necessity of pattern drill; i.e., that pattern drill is not a means unto itself but rather the way in which any skill is mastered so that the actual manipulation of the language sinks below the threshold of awareness.

Please note that translation will not accomplish this. This practice session should constitute an important part of the total lesson, and be total drill; BUT IT SHOULD NOT BE THE ENTIRE LESSON.

In the early stages of language teaching, there will be a lot of the repetition drills with careful modeling, shaping of responses, and reinforcement by the teacher. These will later be expanded into the variety of drills

which can be used to keep the learners actively involved. Consider the simple repetition drills of choral response which utilize various techniques for group response; e.g., men and women, back and front, or row and row.

There are several types of formats for both pattern practice and conscious choice drills. These can be deadly unless sometimes enlivened by the technique demonstrated by Gustav Mathieu called "scanning," in which no student can predict when he will be called upon because you use no predictable ordering in the exercise.

1. Simple substituting drills which allow us to vary vocabulary items while practicing a difficult structure.

Example:

HE IS RIDING AN ELEPHANT. (HORSE)

2. Simple substituting drills expanded so that the items are used in different positions in the pattern.

Example:

HE IS RIDING A HORSE. (SHE)

SHE IS RIDING A HORSE. (CAMEL)

3. Substituting drills which force a change in related structural areas.

Example:

SHE IS RIDING A CAMEL.(I)

4. Substituting words which must themselves be changed in order to fit into the usage dictated by the structure.

Example:

THE ROSES ARE YELLOW. (BOOK)

THE BOOKS ARE YELLOW.

5. Multiple substituting drills in which the cue word for the next response forces multiple changes within the structure.

Example:

I AM RIDING A CAMEL. (TOMORROW)

6. Transformation drills in which the word order is changed.

Example:

SHE IS RIDING A DONKEY.

THE DONKEY WAS RIDDEN BY HER.

7. Conversational drills involving statements, the formation of "yes" or "no" questions, and short answers.

Example:

SHE IS RIDING A KANGAROO.

IS SHE RIDING A KANGAROO?

YES, SHE IS.

8. Question-and-answer exercises in which question words are used to generate an answer, or a cue word or phrase causes a question to be generated.

Example:

SHE IS RIDING A KANGAROO AROUND THE PARK. (WHERE)

9. Addition exercises in which we add on phrases and words in order to practice both word order and rhythm.

Example:

SHE IS RIDING A KANGAROO. (GREY) (AROUND THE PARK) (ON A DARE)

10. Synthesis exercises in which two statements are combined into one by the student.

Example:

HE RODE A MULE. (IN 1929) (TO THE FAIR)

(I would suggest that you try your hand at writing sample exercises of the above.)

The foregoing language drills allow for more than parroting of the language, which is a major criticism of many who teach with the audio-lingual approach.

The deadliest enemy of this approach to language teaching is boredom; not necessarily on the part of the student, but on the part of the native-speaker of English, the teacher. This boredom, in turn, is communicated to the students, with all aboard slowly sinking into the sea of apathy.

Up to this point there has not been much demand for creativity from the teacher. He has been little more than drill master. There has been nothing "conceptual" (as we traditionally know teaching); however, in that part of the lesson which is concerned with his communicating in those patterns which he has been taught, creativity is demanded. What kinds of activities can be created which will consummate that day's learnings? Role playing? Socio-dramas? Application of game theories? Conversations and buzz sessions? Films run silent with student narration? Use of informants (native speakers of the language)? Use of situational pictures for conversation stimulation? Panel discussions, debates, guest lecturers? Field trips? Each teacher may now know the familiar role of "teacher." The variety of activities is only limited by the imagination and energy of the teacher. Also, consider that it is here that we can introduce the culture of this American society in more than an ad hoc fashion.

This part of the lesson also offers an excellent opportunity for evaluating the success of our teaching. It is recognized that teachers are constantly evaluating their students, but evaluation is even more critical in the teaching of English to non-English speakers since there is little use in going on if mastery has not been attained. This is not to say that 100% of the students must achieve 100% mastery; and indeed, the patterns are inter-woven and re-used repeatedly. Nevertheless, each teacher must decide what

constitutes mastery, and as he appraises the attitude and tolerance threshold of the entire class, he can determine the amount of saturation. Suffice it to say that once around is not enough; therefore, there must be a plan for evaluating the learning in order to determine "when is enough." When the student has achieved automaticity and can use language "creatively," he has had enough teaching.

This may be a long process, depending upon his motivation and his individual commitment to learning the language. The teacher can only try to teach him consistently and interestingly and successfully so that he is motivated into giving more than lip-service to the learning of the language.

Audio-Visual Support. One should not neglect the development of the audio-visual support that must be brought into play in the learning situation. Teachers should carefully plan for the most effective use of the blackboard, using such things as colored chalk and pre-drawn pattern frames for the presentation of the lesson, and complete erasures so that there are not tags and bits of English written here and there.

There should be charts upon which vocabulary items are held to a minimum so that the student is not concerned with the meaning of each individual item, rather with their use in drilling structure. (Many of the items selected may also have value in practicing pronunciation.) These are called composite charts.

There should be files of single-item pictures which can be used for teaching vocabulary, and situational pictures which can be used to stimulate oral language experiences while at the same time acting as culture conveyors. If there is more than one of you at a school, a group approach could be used to collecting, mounting and organizing a picture file. Once you have decided

upon the topical areas or types of pictures, a cut and paste party can be of great benefit to all concerned. There should be flashcards which can be taken home for individual study. There are films (run with or without sound) and film strips which can be used to stimulate conversational activities and to teach culture. Each teacher will develop his own repertoire of visuals in order to allow for near-total sensory stimulation; and we should not overlook the grunts and gestures of the language which are also critical to communication.

If there are more advanced students, allow them to go on with certain programs on tapes. If there are students in need of additional practice, prepare drills for them to use before and after class or to take home. Use the tape recorder to introduce another dialect, another vernacular--which they will hear on the street. (The students will gain very little benefit from hearing each other make mistakes.) You might record those parts of each night's lesson which are drill, so that students who are absent can "catch up," or allow students to perform orally for later evaluation by you.

And there is a whole complementary area of hardware in overhead projectors and acetate rolls, language masters, opaque projectors, television (both the language-oriented and the culturally admissable), programmed materials (as they are developed for English as a second language), commercially developed games.

Literacy

All of the foregoing would seem to assume a literate student. It may be necessary for you to teach literacy. If I were teaching a homogenous linguistic group, I would teach literacy in the native language while teaching the comprehension and production of English. If I had a heterogenous group, I would use literacy techniques to move from comprehension and production in English into reading and writing in English.

Total Physical Response

Total physical response must also be commented upon. Current research tells us that adults retain better comprehension gained through total physical response than through the use of the ear only as the sensor.

We have traditionally taught comprehension to production with "Listen and Repeat." This dilutes the intensity of concentration which is heightened by having the students move, touch, and do in total physical response. This should be incorporated as frequently as possible and when the content of a situation makes the activity meaningful.

In summary, the methodology used should allow the teacher to model and shape all responses, especially in the early stages of learning. Only English should be used. There should be early training for comprehension utilizing total physical response. Reading and writing should not be the vehicles of instruction. Teachers will gradually substitute these reinforcements as the students' skill in usage grows. Language should be practiced and not explained--and not translated. Teachers should immediately reinforce correct responses and immediately re-shape the incorrect responses. Vocabulary should be controlled until the student has gained adequate oral control of the structures, and with any vocabulary being introduced in context. For this reason, a satisfactory dictionary is one which is similar to those used by upper elementary students in which the words defined are used in sentences.

A variety of techniques should be employed to enliven the teaching act which will allow for practice and communication. Audiovisual support will greatly enhance each lesson for the student and the teacher alike.

The rest is up to you.

Chapter III

Some WHAT'S to Teach

Many materials have been written for use in classes of English to speakers of other languages. Some use the dialogue approach and develop (hopefully) realistic, culturally-oriented situations which the student can use as a model in later confrontations. If we teach only the dialogue and do not teach the manipulation of the various structures, which most certainly make up these situations, we will in essence have taught the student how to apply for the job but not how to keep it.

Others use a structural approach and hope that teachers have the capabilities to include culture and to expand into communication. We know that we must teach pronunciation, structure, vocabulary, communication, reading and writing; therefore, we will choose from a variety of materials--both commerical and teacher-made--in order to meet the needs and expectations of our students.

"Pronunciation" accommodates not only the vowel and consonant sounds of English but also the intonation, stress and rhythm patterns of the language. Within this domain are:

A. Phonology
   The sounds of the language should be taught. Students attempt to learn a new language by using the sounds of their native one. Aurally and orally in English "phonemes" distinguish between the meaning of words (BITE - BIT); therefore, the pronunciation of the sound system is extremely important. Many foreign students may have had some instruction in English in their native countries. Subsequently, their training in the sounds of English can be a handicap. It is not unusual to spend considerable time reteaching those students who consider themselves at an intermediate stage of learning. Instruction in phonology may be

integrated with conversation and structure so that it is taught in context; e.g., the plural sounds of /s/, /z/, and /iz/ as in: THE BOOKS ARE NEW; THE RUGS ARE NEW; and THE GLASSES ARE NEW. One of the phonetic alphabets can be used in teaching English. Its use will tend to prevent interference from English orthography; however, the student must be oriented as to its value so that he will accept its usage.

B. Intonation
In addition to teaching the production of the sound system, we should include the study of the stress, intonation and rhythm patterns important to the production of English. English is spoken in waves, whereas Spanish (for example) has a more stacatto rhythm. There are four pitch levels which comprise the language tune in English and only three in Spanish.

The English sentence ends with a falling tone as do questions asked for information purposes, whereas questions requiring a Yes-No answer use a rising pitch.

In English, not all words receive the same stress. Content words receive stress, whereas words without lexical content (A, AN, THE, IN, OF, etc.) receive a minimal stress, making them "sound" different when delivered in context than when they are produced in isolation.

Structure is grammar. Some teachers have the mistaken impression that the audiolingual method is a grammarless approach that never mentions or depends on grammar. This unstructured type of teaching had some vogue at one time, but the audiolingual approach could not be described this way. The more thoroughly you understand the grammar of English (and hopefully of your students' languages), the better you should be able to teach adults.

Inductive learning of grammar through discovery, and structure learning through a "usage" methodology such as pattern practice rather than a "description" approach, will ensure that students learn to use the structure of English.

Vocabulary must be taught in a contextual situation, not as lists of words. There are many cognates (similar words) which can be utilized in teaching spelling and writing. If they are going to be taught for active use they should be taught in connected speech patterns and active production. Some cognates may be orthographically identical as in the Spanish ACTOR and the English ACTOR and others which have a pattern of correspondence; e.g., --TION as in the English STATION is usually equivalent to -CION as in the Spanish ESTACION or the -ACE in PALACE is usually equivalent to -ACIO as in PALACIO.

In the teaching of vocabulary, we must distinguish between content words and function words. Function words operate as part of, or are closely tied to, structure. To learn them correctly is primarily a matter of habit-formation and automatic response. The content words, on the other hand, function because they refer to specific concepts and objects in specific situations. They must be learned in association with such specific situations. The microwave format is very relevant here.

Microwave

"Microwave" format is the term used to designate a format for the presentation of language materials that was developed by Dr. Earl Stevick of the Foreign Service Institute. It is based on the concept that it is possible to give language students materials which are at the same time controlled and immediately usable for communication. It should be emphasized that microwave is a format, not a way of presenting particular material, and can be used with a variety of topics in any language.

A microwave text consists mainly of short cycles, each of which begins with the introduction of new material and ends with the use of that material in real communication. Each cycle consists of two phases: The M-phase and the C-phase.

The M-phase involves mimicry of pronunciation, manipulation of grammatical elements, learning the meaning of works and sentences, and to some extent, memorization of the sentences.

The M-phase generally has one to three sections, each based on a single sentence in which variation is allowed in only one slot. This phase is usually presented in question and answer form, with one section having one or two questions and another section containing possible answers.

The C-phase involves connected conversation which is real communication. In this phase students participate in one or more conversations varying from two to six lines in length. These conversations may include material from previous cycles used in conjunction with the new material.

Most cycles are accompanied by brief grammatical notes. Since the length of each cycle is limited, grammar is presented in very small amounts, thereby allowing highly controlled structural practice. Balancing this tight control is the element of flexibility introduced by permitting the instructor and students to substitute lexical items in designated slots.

The microwave format depends upon high frequency sentence patterns into which high frequency lexical items can be substituted. Biographical data, giving directions, travel information, telling time, and similar topics lend themselves well to this type of presentation. Cycles dealing with these topics are often accompanied by visual aids such as maps, pictures and timetables.

Reading for the beginning student grows out of that which he can hear and say. We move into directed reading in which the literate student will be able to read the question "What time did you arrive?" and in the opening line of the paragraph find "I arrived at 6 o'clock." Reading for production and for information should be our goals. One must select graded or structured materials which create a successful reading experience.

Reading materials may be developed out of magazines, mail order catalogues, maps, selections from beginners' texts, and literacy texts not used in class.

The Language Experience Approach is very relevant to your learner's interest. The student tells you his story orally. You write it down in front for the entire class to read, to copy, and to re-read. The reading material is, then, both contemporary and personally relevant.

Writing

Just as there is controlled reading until the students have adequate audiolingual banks, there is also controlled writing. Free writing at these levels produces too many errors. The same types of errors do not repeat often enough for the students to learn from our correction of their mistakes. The beginning students write only what they can say, what the teacher dictates, and the tight patterns they have been practicing.

Dictation is a technique for both comprehension as well as for writing practice. Some students can take shifts at the board while the rest remain seated and learn from the examples they see all around them.

With intermediate students you may work a dialogue until it is memorized. Dictate it and discuss spelling. Then begin orally to substitute words into the basic framework of the dialogue. When the substitution pattern is clear,

give the class a common subject or set of words and ask then to write the new version of the dialogue. Walk among them as they write to gauge their learning and catch mistakes early. If a common error keeps popping up, work up a quick review drill to reinforce the correct pattern.

You can also scramble the words of a sentence and let them sort out the meaning into a written sentence.

--BIG, WENT, YESTERDAY, TO, SISTER, BASEBALL, THE, GAME, MY

Ask a series of related questions and ask them to answer in a paragraph:

--Where and when were you born? How many brothers and sisters did you have? When did you start to school? When did you come to the United States? What have you been doing since you came here? What are you going to do after you learn English?

Describing an object in the room, writing stories to pictures or to comic strips without balloons, finishing incomplete stories or dialogues, etc. are writing ideas that can follow naturally any of the oral activities of the class.

Controlled writing is writing in which a student cannot make a serious error if he follows directions. Controlled writing assumes that an English-second-language student needs as much help in learning to write English as he does in learning to speak English, that he needs to reduce the structures he uses most frequently in writing to habit, just as he has already reduced the structures he uses most frequently in speaking to habit. In other words, the student needs patterned practice in writing using such techniques as:

Controlled fill-ins
Structured-question paragraphs
Completing sentences
One controlled sentence with the next one being free.

Controlled composition gives the student an intermediate step between writing lists of sentences and writing compositions.

In the advanced English classes the student needs to learn how to communicate more involved concepts. Even though the student has mastered the basic sentence patterns, when he first tries to communicate important ideas and impressions, his control of English structure seems to evaporate; it is at this level that translation, his natural language patterns, and the bilingual dictionary come into play. To counteract this, the teacher has to be especially observant, have drills, give examples, and have the student use his own ideas in structured sentences. Use the same methods as at earlier levels, but have the content more involved. Have the student use simple structures. The student can practice while answering and asking questions based on reading material.

Creative composition for an unknown audience--as in the essay, the short story, etc.--is a temptation that must be resisted in your class in English as a second language. This doesn't mean that a controlled writing project can't take the form of a newspaper article, a short skit or even a short-short story. It should be limited to the learned patterns and vocabulary of someone writing a second language.

Most native speakers struggle with creative composition; therefore, don't create a situation in which success depends on artistic style, originality or inventiveness. Don't try to stamp them out. Praise them when they appear; but don't make them necessary for practicing a second language as a communication tool.

A Scope and Sequence

The course of study to follow will suggest curriculum for four sequential levels. In the first three levels, the student will learn that English which is necessary in practical communication. After completing the first three levels, many students terminate their formal study, feeling that

their needs have been satisfied. In level four, the student will extend and refine his knowledge of English based upon the structures of the language he has already learned. He will also consider the formal elements of English required for additional education.

This is intended as a guide or a model which you may use in order to establish a beginning, a middle, and an end. It is structured around the grammar patterns and areas of pronunciation which should be included within an English-second-language program for native Spanish speakers. It has been gleaned and compiled out of a variety of texts and teaching materials and, therefore, will subsequently allow for compatibility with the various commercial materials on the market today. Due to my own experiences, this scope and sequence grew out of my use and familiarity with Fries and Lado's ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS and National Council of Teachers' of English ENGLISH FOR TODAY.

The very important point to be made is that you must augment this scope and sequencing with such techniques as the Language Experience Approach, Audio-Visual-Lingual Teaching Techniques, Games and Simulations and and other creative devices out of which you will create a daily lesson plan. AND, you will want to augment this with your own teacher-made materials using microwave, dialogues, pattern practices, etc.

The scope and sequence to follow will help you to state behavioral objectives for your students as well as to determine instructional objectives for yourself.

It will include my opinions concerning the ordering of the teaching of certain matters of pronunciation; you may choose either to re-order or to omit certain items. For example, I always taught consonant production and discrimination before vowel production and discrimination because I wanted "success" with the sound system for the beginner. Some feel that we should

not "practice" errors and would correct the difficulties that poor vowel production and discrimination cause; others seize upon the item-to-be taught each day as it occurs spontaneously in the classroom. However it is done, let pronunciation be taught--regularly.

This scope and sequence will include my opinions concerning the ordering of structures. For example, I tended to teach DO with I, YOU, WE and THEY before teaching DOES with HE, SHE and IT because DOES is different. This is different from the "parsing" which many of us use as we teach verbs by using I, YOU, HE, SHE, WE, etc. as the predictors. Students discover that DOES is different because is is omitted the first time around, and "why" it is different becomes their property because they <u>discovered</u> it rather than <u>memorized</u> it.

And so, let us begin.

ONE SCOPE AND SEQUENCE FOR USE IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES LEVEL ONE - Beginning Students

I. Structure and Pronunciation

A. Statement patterns for use of IS, ARE, AM in present tense

1. Intonation patterns of statements, questions and short answers

2. Word order of statements using IS, ARE, AM

a. Use of determiners

b. Pronunciation of THE, A, AN - unstressed

3. Use of SHE, HE, IT, THEY with IS and ARE

B. Word order of statements contrasted with word order of questions using IS, ARE, AM

1. Use of full and contracted forms of IS, ARE, AM

2. Pronunciation of IT'S and THERE'S

C. Short answers in the affirmative and in the negative to questions with IS, ARE, AM

1. Pronunciation of the /S/, /Z/, and -ES of plurals and third person singular of verbs as in words like BATS, RUNS, and WASHES

2. Pronunciation of reduced forms of BE and HE, SHE, WE, YOU

D. Patterns for use of verbs other than BE

1. Word order of statements contrasted with word order of questions with DO

2. Pronunciation of /k/ and /g/

3. -S forms of third person singular used with SHE, HE, IT, and other singular nouns in statements

4. Word order of questions with DOES

5. Short answers in the affirmative and in the negative to questions with DO and DOES

6. Stress pattern of compound nouns

7. Pronunciation of /t/, /d/, and -ED endings as in words like SENT, FOUND, and WANTED

E. Patterns for using words of frequency

1. Position of frequency words with BE contrasted with their position with verbs other than BE

2. Pronunciation of /p/ and /b/

3. Use of NEVER in statements and use of EVER in questions

F. Patterns for expressions of place and time

1. Position for expressions of place and time

2. Pronunciation of /f/ and /v/ as in words like HALF and HAVE

G. Forms of BE used with expressions of past time

1. Forms of BE correlated with expressions of past time in statements and questions.

2. Pronunciation of /θ/ and /ð/ as in THIS and THEN

   a. Contrast of /d/ with /ð/ as in DEN and THEN

   b. Contrast of /t/ with /θ/ as in WIT and WITH

H. Formation of verbs other than BE to be used with expressions of past time

   1. Forms of verbs other than BE correlated with expressions of past time in statements and questions

   2. Short answers to questions with expressions of past tiem

   3. Pronunciation of /š/, /ž/, /č/, and /ǰ/ as in words like WASH, MEASURE, CHURCH, and JUDGE

I. Word order of questions with interrogative words

J. Use of AM, IS, ARE, and -ING form of verb to show action in progress

   1. In statement patterns in contrast with statement patterns showing repeated action and in question patterns without the interrogative word in contrast with question patterns using the interrogative word

   2. Pronunciation of /m/, /n/, and /ng/

K. Position of single word modifiers

L. Use of IS, ARE, AM, and GOING TO in expressions of future time

   1. Statement patterns contrasted with question patterns

   2. Pronunciation of /l/ and /r/

M. Formation of negative statements

   1. NOT in statements and questions of present, past, and future time with BE

   2. NOT in statements and questions of present, past, and future time with DO and the simple form of verbs

   3. Use of NEVER, SELDOM, RARELY, SOME and ANY

   4. Pronunciation of /w/ and /y/

N. Use of function words such as A, THE, and substitute words with countable and noncountable nouns

1. Noncountable nouns without A and without plural forms as well as THE

2. Pronunciation of the front vowels:

a. /i/ and /I/ as in words like EAT and IT

b. /e/ and /ɛ/ as in words like LATE and LET

c. Contrast of /ɛ/ with /I/ as in words like BET and BIT

d. Contrast of /I/, /ɛ/, and /i/ as in BIT, BET, BEAT

e. / æ/ as in CAT

3. A FEW, MANY, A LITTLE, MUCH, etc. distributed with countable and noncountable nouns

O. Formation of request sentences

1. Stress and intonation pattern for formation of requests, etc.

2. Pronunciation of the middle vowels:

a. /ə/ and /a/ as in words like BUT and NOT

b. Contrast of /a/ with /æ / as in words like NOT and BAT

c. /ai/ as in words like BUY

d. /ər/ as in words like CURT

P. Irregular verbs having a vowel or consonant contrast to indicate past time and which never have -ED

Q. Pronunciation of the back vowels and glides

1. /u/ and /U/ as in words like LUKE and LOOK

2. /aU/ as in words like NOW

3. /o/ and /ɔ/ as in words like COAT and CAUGHT

4. /ɔI/ as in words like BOY

II. Vocabulary Building

A basic vocabulary of flexible content might include such items as:

numbers: cardinal to 1,000;
ordinal to 100
family relationships
common foods
the telling of time
articles of clothing
eating utensils
parts of the body
furniture
organic matter and minerals:
wood, metal, rubber, etc.
names of occupations
colors
days of the week
months of the year--seasons
most important geographical names
common animals

A few basic two-word verbs based upon verbs plus particles; i.e., PUT ON, WAIT FOR, SIT DOWN, GET UP, etc.

Countable and noncountable nouns; e.g., GLASS as opposed to BUTTER, etc.

Basic opposites--adjectives, prepositions, etc. GOOD-BAD, ON-OFF.

III. Reading and Writing

In beginning English, writing is quite limited, but not ignored. It should be used in direct relationship to the student's use and understanding of the spoken word in the class. Because of their influence on intonation, the question mark, the period, and the apostrophe are taught at this point. The students also begin sentences with capital letters.

Suggested proportions of time to be devoted to utilizing the skills of the language are as follows:

Listening - 40%
Speaking - 40%
Reading - 15%
Writing - 5%

LEVEL TWO - Intermediate Students

I. Structure and Pronunciation

A. Review of usage of structures and pronunciations from Level One

B. Use of substitute words in modification patterns

1. OTHER and ANOTHER used as nouns in contrast with their use as modifiers of nouns

2. Objective form of personal pronouns in the object position

C. Patterns in which TO ME, FOR ME, and ME are used with certain verbs

D. Word order for expression of manner and for other modifiers

E. Use of question order and statement order in questions with question words

F. Use of CAN, SHOULD, MUST, WILL, MIGHT, and MAY

G. Use of a pattern of connecting statements

1. AND ... TOO contrasted with AND ... EITHER

2. BUT ...

3. Pronunciation of consonant clusters: /sp/ as in words like SPECIAL

H. Use of the two-word verbs

1. In a separated pattern and in an unseparated pattern

2. Pronunciation of consonant clusters: /st/, /sk/, /sn/, /sm/, /sl/, and /sw/ as in words like STATE, SKATE, SNOW, SMALL, etc.

I. Formation of statements and answers using WHY and HOW

J. Structures involving use of TO and FOR

1. FOR and TO plus other words as modifiers after some kinds of quality words

2. Position of VERY, TOO, and ENOUGH

3. Use of the noun or pronoun after certain action words

4. Pronunciation of final consonant clusters: Consonant + /s/, consonant + /t/, consonant + /z/, and consonant + /d/ as in words like BATS, STOPPED, BAGS, and USED

K. Use of additional patterns with function words and other forms

1. IT or THERE as the subject

2. -'S as a contraction and to show possession

3. Pronunciation of final consonant clusters: two consonants + /s/ as in words like HELPS

L. Use of comparisons

1. Comparisons with LIKE, THE SAME AS, DIFFERENT FROM, THE SAME ... AS, AND AS ... AS

2. Comparisons with ... -ER THAN and MORE ... THAN, OF THE ... -EST, and THE MOST

3. Intonation and stress patterns used in comparisons

4. Pronunciation of final consonant clusters: two consonants + /t/ as in words like HELPED

II. Vocabulary Building

Government agencies
Health and health practices
Clothing and clothing materials
Shopping expressions
Shopping expressions
Holidays
Family--names of more distant relatives
Occupations and some responsibilities within them
Simple synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms

III. Reading and Writing

As in beginning, writing should be used in direct relationship to the student's use and understanding of the spoken work in class, and may be practiced by writing from simple dictation and by writing answers to questions based on reading and conversation materials.

Reading should be based on class materials and texts as well as on the student's understanding of spoken material. Students should practice silent reading, choral oral reading, and individual oral reading with emphasis on rhythm, stress, and intonation.

Suggested proportions of time which might be spent in developing skills are:

Listening---Speaking - 45%
Reading - 35%
Writing - 20%

LEVEL THREE Intermediate-Advanced Students

A. Review structure and pronunciation taught in Level One and Level Two

B. Word order arrangement and use of included sentences to modify nouns

1. Pronunciation of final consonant cluster: two consonants + /z/ as in words like VERBS

2. THAT and other words used as subject of the included sentences

3. THAT and other words in other positions

4. Pronunciation of final consonant clusters: two consonants + /d/ as in words like SOLVED

5. WHO, WHAT, WHEN, etc. in object position

6. Included sentences of independent statement pattern used in the object position

C. Use of HAVE (HAS) and HAD

1. HAVE (HAS) + the -ED/-EN form of verbs as used in present perfect complete structures

2. HAVE (HAS) + BEEN + the -ING form of verbs as used in present perfect continuous structures

3. HAD in these patterns

D. Use of BE

1. BE + the -ED/-EN form of verbs

2. Used with STILL, ALREADY, ANY MORE, YET

3. Used with -ED/ -EN and -ING to describe

4. BE + two-word verbs and the -ING form

E. Use of different structures for verb modification

1. Omission of TO after certain verbs

2. WISH (THAT) + statement pattern

F. Formation of conditional patterns

1. Use of words like SHOULD, COULD, MIGHT, and MUST

2. Cause and result statements

G. Forms used in object structures and for modification

1. -ING forms used with verbs

2. Certain verbs followed by two nouns with the same referent

3. Verbs followed by an object and one or two describing words

4. Verbs followed by an object and a describing word or an -ING form

5. -ING forms used in the position of the subject as opposed to -ING forms used at the beginning of sentences and referring to the subject

H. Sequence of sentences

1. Sequences of sentences related by THEREFORE, ALSO, and HOWEVER

2. Sequence of sentences related by initial expressions of time or place

3. Sentences of restatement introduced by IN OTHER WORDS

II. Vocabulary Building

Educational opportunities
Music, literature, the arts
Leisure-time activities
Government
Travel
Prefixes
Postal procedures
Insurance procedures
Driving
Suffixes
Derivations
Synonyms
Antonyms
Homonyms
Idioms
Hyphenation of words
Traffic regulations
Purchasing suggestions

III. Reading and Writing

At this level, more time is devoted to reading and writing. Reading skills are sharpened and expanded as necessary tools for obtaining information. Reading comprehension is evaluated through oral or written questions and discussion.

Writing skills are developed to meet the needs of daily living as well as the more formal requirements of education. Give practice in writing dictated sentences, and short paragraphs and letter writing discovering the grammar of the above.

Suggested proportion of time:

Listening--Speaking	-40%
Reading	-40%
Writing	-20%

LEVEL FOUR - Advanced Students

By the time the student has reached the advanced levels of English, the emphasis is on review, practice, refinement and expansion of the material already introduced in previous classes. At these levels there is more emphasis on reading and writing in such contextual materials as will help the student to gain insight into social problems of our society, of labor and industry, the American philosophy and way of life, etc.

Special attention might be given to the following review areas in grammar:

A. Review of function words

1. Auxiliaries such as HAVE, BE, SHALL, WILL, MAY, CAN, MUST, MIGHT, COULD, WOULD, SHOULD, DO

2. Intonation pattern for modals: COULD, WOULD, SHOULD, MUST, etc.

3. Prepositon adverbs:

a. Ten most frequently used: AT, BY, FOR, FROM, IN, INTO, OF, ON, TO, WITH

(1) pronunciation of TO and TOO

(2) intonation and stress patterns for use of prepositions

b. Place

c. Direction

d. Time

e. Comparison

f. Intonation and stress patterns for comparisons

4. Conjunctions and intonation pattern for using OR, and BUT

5. Words for degree and for generalizing

6. Intonation and stress for manner and time words

B. Giving and getting information

C. The human body and its actions

1. Evening and morning activities

2. Special problems: WAKE UP, GET UP, PUT ON, etc.

D. Food and meals

E. The home

F. Descriptive words

1. Size

2. Shape

3. Color

4. Weight

5. Flavor

G. Buying and selling

H. Transportation and communication

I. Personal and professional contacts

J. Oral and written descriptions

1. Description of people and things

2. Spelling vowel sounds /I/ and /i/

K. Oral and written reports

1. Reports on topics; i.e., books, movies, trips, etc.

2. Spelling vowel sounds /e/ and /ɛ/

3. Spelling vowel sounds /I/, /ɛ/, and /i/

L. Oral discussions

1. Discussions on American history

2. Spelling vowel sound /æ/

3. Discussions on the geography and climate of the United States

4. Spelling vowel sounds /ə/ and /a/

5. Discussions related to government

6. Spelling sounds of glides /aI/ and /ɚ/

7. Spelling sounds of glides /aU/ and /oI/

Chapter IV

Some KINDS of Evaluation

Evaluation must take place in three main areas--text books and materials, student performance, and teacher performance.

MATERIALS

Many published materials have been written out of a variety of substantive area interests (English, linguistics, TESOL); however, it has been proposed that more frequently than not these materials rely heavily upon the expertise of teachers and that sound methodology will compensate for any shortcomings; i.e. that they are based on learning principles rather than on teaching principles. Teachers have the responsibility, therefore, of evaluating those materials which they are asked to use in light of:

1. The inclusion of the principles of second language learning
2. The linguistic construction of the text
3. The vocabulary control which is exercised
4. The amount of drill materials
5. The inclusion of materials for teaching the sound system and its patterns
6. The sequencing of structures
7. The number of grammar rules
8. The visualization of the book
9. The cultural in-put
10. The interest-utilization level (many texts are geared toward the college bound)
11. The supplementary materials such as charts, flashcards, readers, filmstrips, tapes, etc., which are available for use with the text.

Those materials should:

1. Recognize that language learning is the forming of new habits in new situations and, subsequently, should have content realistically

centered around the behavior called for by that situation in our culture. The text should avoid using unreal sentences for the purpose of drill repetition.

2. Place an emphasis on language use, and use structures rather than isolated words that later will be manufactured into sentences by the students. Priority in the textual materials should include: (1) the sound system; (2) the basic structures utilizing function words; (3) appropriate vocabulary.
3. Have an abundance of oral and written practice drills that help a student replace his native language patterns.
4. Begin with the easiest structures and proceed to the most difficult, presenting materials in sequence. Only a small amount of new material should be presented in each lesson.
5. Lead naturally and sequentially from level to level.
6. Be graded, teaching common usage before teaching the exception.
7. Contain provision for the reintroduction of all the material previously taught within the new material to be taught.
8. Use vocabulary centered around the interests of a student and around areas with which he is most familiar.
9. Keep grammar rules to a minimum and use them only to point out generalities or to help organize and learn related items.
10. Provide materials for listening and practice as well as for reading and writing, thereby accommodating "hear, say, read, and write."

The selection of the textual materials based on sound language learning principles not only saves the teacher preparation time but guides the teacher so that too much time is not spent on the individual teacher's likes, dislikes and interests.

Know your clientele when choosing a textbook. Some of the best texts in the field of English as a second language are directed towards the bright, college-oriented foreign student. Much of the vocabulary is technical and the pace is faster than many students can handle. They go through the book quickly, but learn very little. There is another caution that is necessary. Frequently material for adults has been adapted from children's stories and reflects children's interest.

In addition to commercial materials are the teacher-made and the teacher-student-made materials utilizing microwave or language experience or such other techniques. Be sure to include them.

STUDENTS

When we evaluate our students we evaluate our program as well. There is no point in going on if almost everyone isn't there yet.

Evaluation of the students' progress is done by observation, by informal judgement, and by testing. Within the realm of testing we should consider aptitude tests, diagnostic tests, and achievement tests.

There are standardized tests for use in adult TESOL classes; however, many of them have been developed for use with foreign students.

The Modern Language Aptitude Test could be well used to help us determine the level of aptitude for second language learning the student is bringing into the classroom. It will help you to program for and to understand and support each student's endeavor. A hearing check is also a good idea.

You might also want to administer the Cooperative Inter-American Tests (Spanish Version) if you have all Spanish speakers. It will give you an idea of the general educational background of your student.

If these more sophisticated devices are not available to you, you will still be able to gather data about your students. And since most published tests are paper and pencil devices, this data will be even more relevant because it will be aural-oral.

Interviews are frequently used to place individual students at their appropriate level. At the beginning of a program you can also spot check what your class knows by asking questions based on the structure and vocabulary you think they should know. Such individual or group interviews can tell you what your program needs to stress or review.

During the program, you should constantly evaluate your students' progress. Evaluate a few students each day, decide on a few important points and rate the student only on those items, ignoring other errors he makes. (This is done informally during class recitation.) During a written assignment, walk around and ask specific students questions each day. If you have a tape recorder, walk among the students and listen to their responses. If you record your observations, you will have a collection of individual marks and interviews which will help you evaluate student performance objectively. Such informal observations are especially valuable since students are at ease, and their responses are natural. Grade or record observations, when you want records, after the interview or as inconspicuously as possible.

Try to keep your ear attuned to language errors, patterns, and stresses and consider each skill separately. Decide what you are evaluating that day and stick to it. Sometimes you are favorably impressed if a student follows directions quickly or writes well and you, consciously or unconsciously, color other evaluations.

If you have a tape-recorder you can test ability to hear, understand, and speak and you will be able to evaluate later.

Set the tape recorder in record position. Start the machine and then push in the instant stop. While students are writing as assignment, call one student to your desk. Ask him a few questions, releasing the instant stop when he answers. Push it in again when you talk. You will then have recorded only the student's responses to your questions. (Be sure you record the names at the beginning of each student's interview).

Avoid written tests with beginning students; e.g., essays, autobiographies, or paragraphs.

Writing a pattern previously practiced orally, completion, substitution, transformation, and question-answer, as well as complete or partial dictation quizzes are very effective. For a variety of questions at different levels see Dacanay's book, TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING. Robert Lado's book, LANGUAGE TESTING, gives a wide variety of model tests for listening and speaking evaluation. Nelson Brooks' LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING also has a chapter on test selections. And you may want to read David P. Harris' ENGLISH TESTING GUIDE BOOK.

Donna Ilyinn of the San Francisco Adult Schools (who has been very interested in the area of testing adults) in a publication under an Office of Education grant in 1967-68 for the California State Department of Education Bureau of Adult Education entitled ENGLISH (AMERICANIZATION-LITERACY), developed some of the following suggestions and ideas for teacher-made tests:

Picture clues (either drawn on the board, on ditto, on charts or on individual cards placed on hooks, or on a clothesline over the blackboard) are good cues to stimulate an oral answer or a written answer in a construct like:

He _____ every day.
(swim)

Use pictures to test verbs. To test sender and pronoun usage, the picture content may cue the correct answer. If you make a list of standard questions with the verb slots blank, you can use the same test form a number of times by changing the picture or their order. For example:

1. She_____every morning.
2. They_____last night.
3. He is going_____next week.
4. I'm_____now.
5. She has_____her face.
6. You don't like to_____.
7. Do you like_____?

You can use a series of pictures or props to test contractions, nouns, pronouns, time, or numbers. Remember you are also testing vocabulary and spelling. You could use the picture of a man washing a car on a number of different tests:

Test A _____ is Mr. Jones.
(Subject pronoun)

Test B _____ name is Mr. Jones.
(Possessive pronoun)

Test C Give _____ this book.
(Objective pronoun)

Test D _____ in the living room.
(Contraction)

Test E (Place letters on one person in each of the pictures)
(Question word response

1. <u>Where</u> is A?
2. <u>What</u> is B doing?
3. <u>How</u> many people are in Picture 3?

Time may be tested by using clock charts, a clock with moveable hands or cards with clocks on them. Tell students to look at the clocks and put numbers in each blank. Cross out either "to" or "after" to read correctly:

1. It's _____ minutes to/after _____.

2. It's _____ : _____.

Picture clue tests and other written or completion tests are varied and interesting, but they take time to grade and sometimes adult students are afraid of tests requiring much pen and pencil work.

With a little thought and effort you can make interesting and provocative tests that students do not fear and that you can grade quickly. These tests also help eliminate bias and subjective grading.

Most of us are familiar with multiple-choice tests for vocabulary, nouns and adjective problems, verb structures, reading, idiomatic usage, and prepositions. Word order, listening comprehension, recognition of sounds and situation responses can also be tested in multiple choice form. You may ask a student to pick the best answer or you may have two correct answers and ask him to choose the wrong one.

Following are some examples of what you might do:

1. Word order
   A. Has been David there?
   B. Been there David?
   C. Has David been there?

2. Sound System — The teacher says a word resembling one of the following, and then says, "Choose the word that ends like this word"
   A. Kiss
   B. Keys
   C. His

The teacher says "Beat" and then "Which word am I saying?"

A. Bit

B. Beat

C. Bat

3. Listening comprehension. The student hears a phrase or sentence and and chooses the correct paraphrase, or he hears a question and chooses the correct answer. You can give him a mimeographed series of pictures and tell him to choose the one that best describes a statement.

4. Situation response. Mark the best answer for "How do you do?"

A. Fine, thank you.

B. Hello.

C. Better now.

If you decide to construct a multiple-choice test, remember the following:

1. Test what you think students have learned and what you have said you would test.
2. Test one thing at a time in each question, but give varied questions that represent many common problems.
3. Choose distractors (wrong answers) from errors actually made by the students. If students have a common native language, analyze the typical mistakes these students make and compare them with English. Some teachers keep card files of common mistakes. You can also get many distractors from completion, dictation, substitution and transformation tests or from class recitations.

4. Don't try to trick students. Try to insure success rather than to erect obstacles.

5. Arrange questions in order of difficulty. A student is less anxious when the easy questions are first. Gradually go to the more difficult.

6. Group the same kind of questions together. Don't test spelling and culture items with structure and grammar. Use short, simple questions for oral comprehension or you will have a memory test only.

7. Type questions carefully and arrange them clearly. Adult students have fewer problems if the question or statement is repeated with the problem area underlined:

   A. He <u>is</u> here.

   B. He <u>am</u> here. (Distractor)

   C. He <u>are</u> here. (Distractor)

   rather than: He (is, am, are), or He (A. is) here.
   (B. am)
   (C. are)

8. Try to avoid using contractions when testing structure knowledge.

9. Make keys for quick grading. If you type the questions as suggested above, you can line all the A, B, C's in a common vertical line. Take a test. Fold it on that line and punch out the letter in front of the correct answer with a hole punch. If students have placed an X on the A, B, or C, the X will appear in the hole. If no X appears, circle the letter through the hole with a red pencil. Students then know that they missed that question and they know which answer was correct. You can save one-third grading time by using a tablet.

10. Write simple directions using only a few words. Give an example or two and a trial sentence or two. Be sure students know whether they are to mark correct answers or wrong answers.
11. At first, allow students sufficient time. Later build up to time limits. Be casual and friendly. You may frighten them if you start time limits too soon. If there is a time limit, tell students at the beginning of the test.
12. Introduce answer sheets and teach students how to use them. Adult students can use them even at the beginning.
13. Grade papers quickly and discuss results with students as quickly as possible. Some teachers give students two tests with a carbon so that the student can keep one. At the end, the teacher reads the correct answers after the original test has been collected.
14. Revise tests frequently and discard bad questions. Keep a file of good questions. A question is not good if just as many or more poor students as good students answer it correctly. The test is not good if the best students don't get the best scores.
15. Don't give the same questions or tests too often.
16. Test frequently. This acts as a review and shows the student his progress. The student sees he is moving ahead. The students get used to taking tests and they remember correct answers. Tests also show you where you need to review.

In any evaluation, remember to combine your own trained observations and intuitive judgment with any test results. A student may be ill, worried, or tired. Remember, the real test of a student's ability is not if he can answer controlled questions or follow patterned drills but if he can communicate spontaneously.

It is easier to evaluate your student's performance in the classroom than his performance after he has finished studying English. The teacher will find it very difficult to predict reliably a student's performance in life, but when your student leaves the school he should have a knowledge of the facilities which the community offers him vocationally, avocationally, and socially. This means that you should do some research in your community; many facilities which we take for granted are unknown to our students.

THE TEACHER

In addition to evaluating the progress of the student and the effectiveness of the program, you should from time to time evaluate your own performance.

1. Do you use a record player or tape recorder for language models or to record your students' performance?
2. Do your students practice English in class or do they spend a large portion of their time listening to teacher-explanation?
3. Do you involve all of the students in the class?
4. In your beginning classes, do your students spend the major portion of their time listening and speaking rather than reading and writing?
5. Do your students learn dialogues, stories, or drill material so that they can respond automatically?
6. Do you use sufficiently varied materials to maintain the interest of your students?
7. Do you introduce material at a controlled rate so that your students are able to achieve mastery of new material? Do you review frequently?
8. Do you use a normal rate of speech and normal pronunciation in your class?

9. Do you use choral response?

10. Do you use structure pattern drills?

11. Is the English model followed by choral response, individual response, and student-student communication?

12. Are you concerned with the accuracy of your students' pronunciation?

13. Do your students learn vocabulary in a meaningful context rather than as separate words?

14. Do you use songs and games that provide practice in the use of correct English as supporting activities?

15. Do you use visual aids?

16. Do you incorporate the surrounding culture of the United States in your classroom?

17. Do you know of the agencies and facilities of your community which would be beneficial to your students?

18. Can you counsel your students concerning further education?

19. When you give a new type of assignment, activity, or test, do you demonstrate fully how it is to be carried out?

20. Does your class period always contain some review of old material and ample demonstration of new material?

21. Are the assignments you give busy work or real language learning?

22. Do you correct your students' oral and written mistakes as soon as possible?

23. Does your evaluation of your student relate to what you have taught and what is the most important at his level?

In addition to these questions, how do you square with the following check list?

1. Corrects pupil errors in pronunciation and intonation
2. Requires pupils to respond in an audible voice
3. Models, directs, and reinforces pupil responses
4. Provides opportunities for pupils to use the language in meaningful situations
5. Elicits choral, semi-choral, and individual responses
6. Uses a variety of drills and activities in a single period
7. Skilled in presenting and drilling structure via pattern practice
8. Skilled in mimicry-memorization techniques
9. Makes appropriate use of gestures
10. Presents only one new dialogue or new structure in a single period
11. Makes effective use of role-playing
12. Talks only to direct activities and develop listening skills
13. Employs a variety of appropriate visual materials
14. Maintains detailed lesson with behavioral objectives
15. Reviews learned material at appropriate intervals
16. Evaluates language skills regularly and appropriately
17. Insists upon a high level of performance
18. Possesses native or near-native mastery of the sound system
20. Enjoys the respect of pupils and is in complete control of the classroom situation
21. Points the instruction toward accepted linguistic and cultural goals
22. Maintains a classroom in which all activities reflect cultural orientation as well as language instruction
23. Uses auditive language of the students only when the situation requires it
24. Requires participation of all pupils

25. Maintains a lively pace of instruction

26. Places appropriate emphasis on each of the four language skills

27. Devotes class time to talk "in" the language rather than "about" it

28. Schedules remedial instruction regularly

29. Remains standing and moves among the pupils

30. Conducts an audiolingual-pre-reading phase of instruction.

IN SUMMARY

A program needs to be looked at by the person teaching. The responsibility to the learner is too large to allow us the luxury of "just teaching." The adult learner frequently drops out of the TESOL class because he feels frustrated and defeated and that he is to blame--because he's too old or too under-educated, etc. It is not his responsibility to learn; it is our responsibility to teach, and that is only accomplished by progress checks along the way.

The best planning, the best materials--in our view--may not cause learning. So check up every now and then.

The following annotated bibliography was prepared by the author for the Bureau of Adult Education of the California State Department of Education under Title V ESEA, while assigned as education project specialist to develop a statewide plan for the Development and Implementation of Curricula Research Programs Involving Adults with Spanish Surnames. In compiling this work, the author drew upon her own experience and the following sources:

Teaching English as a Second Language in Adult Education Programs. *

Compiled and edited by Sirarpi Ohannessian and Ruth E. Wineberg, Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C., 1967. [ED 018 788, $0.25 microfiche, $0.85 hardcopy]

The Linguistic Reporter, Volume 7, Number 5, October 1965.

Center for Applied Linguistics, 1717 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

An Introductory Bibliography for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. *

Compiled by Patricia Cabrera, School of Education, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, 1965. [ED 016 914, $0.25 microfiche, $0.90 hardcopy]

A Handbook for Teachers of English (Americanization-Literacy). *

California State Department of Education, Sacramento, 1966. [Revised 1967 edition, ED 016 191, $0.50 microfiche, $3.90 hardcopy]

* ERIC documents indicated by ED number and microfiche/hardcopy price may be ordered from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, National Cash Register Company, 4936 Fairmont Avenue, Bethesda, Maryland 20014.

MATERIALS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS OF ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

1. APPLICATION

Allen, Harold B., ed. Teaching English as a Second Language: A Book of Readings. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.
Background information for prospective and experienced teachers. Includes theory and approaches to teaching English pronunciation, structure, vocabulary, composition, reading and literature, as well as methods and techniques, visual aids and testing suggestions.

Brooks, N. Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice, 2nd Ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1960.
Considered by many teachers to be the most definitive study of modern language teaching. Easy to read and covers many helpful topics: Mother Tongue and Second Language, Language Teaching, Language and Culture, Language and Literature.

Committee on the Language Program, Structural Notes and Corpus: A Basis for the Preparation of Materials to Teach English as a Foreign Language. Washington, D.C.: American Council of Learned Societies, 1952.

Dacanay, F. R. Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching. J.B. Bowen, ed. Philippine Center for Language Study. Monograph Series No. 3. Quezon City, P.I.: Phoenix Publishing House, 1963. Paper.
Heavy on writing methods and materials. Complete spelling analysis. Discusses testing the second language and gives sample tests.

Finocchiaro, M. English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice. New York: Regents Publishing Co., 1964. Paper.
Designed for both beginning teachers and experienced teachers. Offers background reading for language learning and teaching; based, to some extent, on author's own experiences. Also includes suggested content for preparing curriculum, developing language skills, materials, techniques, testing, and some "do's" and "don'ts."

Fries, Charles C. Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945.
Contains information in support of the theory behind the linguistic approach to teaching and learning English as a foreign language. There is much emphasis on use of the oral approach based on a contrastive analysis of the learner's language.

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1. APPLICATION (Continued)

Hocking, Elton. Language Laboratory and Language Learning. Monograph 2. Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1964. Paper.
Relative to the language laboratory and developments that will be of aid to language learning and teaching.

Karp, T.B. et al. Principles and Methods of Teaching a Second Language: A Motion Picture Series for Teacher Training. A five-film series. New York: Teaching Film Custodians, 25 West 43rd Street, 1962.
A series of films entitled: "The Nature of Language," "The Sounds of Language," "The Organization of Language "Words and Their Meanings," "Modern Techniques for Teaching Foreign Languages." A helpful base from which to loft pre-service and in-service Teacher-training programs.

Lado, Robert. Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach. New York. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, 1964.
Orientation relative to the scientific approach to language teaching. Topics include background in linguistics, language learning, techniques of teaching, testing, use of language labs and other aids, reading, writing, cultural content, literature, teaching machines, and programmed learning.

Lado, Robert. Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests. London: Longmans, 1961.
Discussions of construction and use of language tests. Suggests types of tests and gives theory and practice of refining and standardizing tests.

Lado, Robert. Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers. Ann Arbor, Mich: University of Michigan Press, 1957.
Uses non-technical vocabulary in demonstrating role that descriptive linguistics can play in a language teaching situation. Compares sound systems, grammatical structures, vocabulary systems and cultrual patterns.

Center for Applied Linguistics. Aural Aids in English for Foreigners. 2nd Ed. Washington, D.C. Center for Applied Linguistics, 1964.
A collection of sources relative to available aural aids for use in teaching English.

Nida, Eugene. Learning a Foreign Language. New York: Free Press. Foreign Missions Conference of North America, 1950. Rev. Ed. 1957.
A guide for individual language study written from the point of view of modern descriptive linguistics though with a minimum of technical vocabulary.

1. APPLICATION (Continued)

Ohannessian, Sirarpi and Ruth E. Wineberg. Teaching English as a Second Language - Adult Education Program. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1966. [Out of print. Available through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service in microfiche (MF) $0.25, hardcopy (HC) $0.85.]

An annotated bibliography of interest to teachers of English to adults.

Roberts, Paul. Patterns of English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1956.

Attempts to work out a way of teaching English based on the findings and techniques of the linguists. The first "serious effort" to provide this kind of material for secondary school students. Combines Trager-Smith phonology with Fries syntax. A very useful Teacher's Guide discusses the author's aims, outlines the plan of the book, and provides a short critical bibliography.

Sanderson, James L. and Walter K. Gordon, etc. Exposition and the English Language: Introductory Studies. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

An anthology of forty-four essays designed for use in freshman courses whose purpose is the development of writing skills. Some of the essays are on linguistic topics; e.g., grammar, dialect differences. Included are questions, vocabulary drill, and exercises.

Stevick, Earl W. A Workbook in Language Teaching: With Special Reference to English as a Foreign Language. Nashville, Tenn: Abingdon Press, 1963.

For initial training of new language teachers and for in-service use by experienced teachers. Treats three selected topics: English phonology, basic types of drill, and fundamentals of grammar. Frequent exercises and discussion questions assist user in acquiring skills and in keeping check on his own progress.

Stevick, Earl W. Helping People Learn English. New York: Abingdon Press, 1957.

Slanted to the non-professional teacher. Attempts to touch on all related techniques, backgrounds and problems.

Stockwell, R.P., J. Donald Bowen and J.W. Martin. The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

Contrastive linguistic analysis describing the similarities and differences between English and Spanish, and intended to offer a basis for the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses, and the development of classroom techniques. The style is moderately technical. This study is part of the Contrastive Structure Series (Chas. A. Ferguson, Gen. Editor.), a project of the Center for Applied Linguistics undertaken under contract with the U.S. Office of Education.

1. APPLICATION (Continued)

Stockwell, Robert P. and J. Donald Bowen. The Sounds of English and Spanish. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

2. LINGUISTICS

Allen, Harold B. Readings in Applied English Linguistics. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1958. 2nd Ed. 1964.
A collection of sixty-two articles representative of current linguistic thought and applications. This edition (1964) gives wider coverage to transformation grammar and to linguists and the study of literature.

Carroll, John B. Language and Thought. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
Using scientific linguistics as a foundation and point of departure, and designed for use in an introductory course in psychology, this text presents the topic under the following headings: language and communication, the nature of language, the learning of language, aspects of language behavior, individual differences in language behavior, cognition and thinking, and language and cognition.

Catford, J.C. A Linguistic Theory of Translation: An Essay in Applied Linguistics. London: Oxford Univ. Press, 1965.
This volume sets up a theory of translation, which is defined as "the replacement of textual material in one language by equivalent textual material in another language". Based on lectures given in the School of Applied Linguistics at Edinburgh University.

Francis, W. Nelson. The Structure of American English. (With a chapter on American English Dialects by Raven I. McDavid, Jr.) New York: The Ronald Press, 1958.
Intended for a one-semester course in the English language. Attempts to synthetize "current linguistic knowledge, especially as applied to present-day American English."

Fries, Charles C. The Structure of English: An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Company, 1952.
Does not deal with "grammar of usage" -- language differences according to social level--but with "grammar of structure" -- the systematic description of syntax patterns. The analysis is based on fifty hours of recorded conversations.

Hall, Robert A., Jr. Linguistics and Your Language. 2nd rev. ed. of Leave Your Language Alone. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1960.
A brief popular discussion relative to language and linguistics. Contains clear, non-technical statement of theories, principles, and methods.

2. LINGUISTICS (Continued)

Hill, Archibald A. Introduction to Linguistic Structures: From Sound to Sentence in English. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958.
Except for an appendix on Latin and one on Eskimo, Hill concerns himself almost exclusively with English. In the foreword, he points out that linguistic investigation has advanced rapidly since 1933, the date of Bloomfield's Language. He refers to the Trager-Smith and Fries books, though not by name, and says that the former treats primarily sounds, the latter primarily syntax.

Malmstrom, Jean and Annabel Ashley. Dialects, U.S.A. Champaign, Illinois: NCTE, 1963.
A careful and relatively non-technical treatment of regional variety in American English. Contains suggestions for study, bibliographies, and maps.

Postman, Neil and Charles Weingartner. Linguistics, A Revolution in Teaching. New York: Dell Publishing Company, 1966.
A paperback which defines linguistics and discusses its applications to a standard English Program; has implications for TESOL teachers who may be "skittish" about what linguistics is.

3. LANGUAGE AND RELATED DISCIPLINES

Anderson, W.L. and N.C. Stageberg (eds.) Introductory Readings on Language. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1962. Paper.
Designed primarily as a text for freshman English, this book consists of forty-two essays, reprinted from various sources, with headnotes, suggested assignments, and lists of further readings. In the main the selections are non-technical.

Dean, L.F. and K.G. Wilson (eds.). Essays on Language and Usage, 2nd Ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1963. Paper.
A collection of essays reprinted from various sources intended to provide a linguistic foundation for the study of rhetoric and composition. The selections deal with English, its dictionaries, history, structure, usage, and style. There is a concluding section "Aids to Study."

Hall, Edward T. The Silent Language. Premier R-204. 1959. Paper.
This book is concerned with the nonverbal behavior (the "silent language") through which we communicate to other people our attitudes toward time, spatial relationships, work, play, and learning. Written from the standpoint of cultural anthropology, with considerable emphasis upon problems of cross-cultural communication.

Hayakawa, S.I. (ed.). The Use and Misuse of Language. Premier T-166, 1962. Paper.
A selection of articles, addressed to the non-specialist, concerned with how people use words and how words affect those who use them.

Henle, Paul (ed.). Language, Thought and Culture. Ann Arbor AA-97, 1958.
A collection of nine essays reflecting the concern with language on the part of linguists, anthropologists, psychologists, sociologists, philosophers, and literary critics. The individual authors are: Roger W. Brown, Irving M. Copi, Don E. Dulaney, William K. Frankena, Paul Henle, Charles L. Stevenson.

Lloyd, Donald J., and Harry R. Warfel. American English in its Cultural Setting. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1956.
Like Roberts, it combines Trager-Smith phonology with Fries syntax. But it attempts much more than a description of English grammar. The ambitious authors offer their book "for anyone who needs to understand English and how it works in American Society." It considers the development of English in America; it shows how knowledge of Structure can be applied to movement of the eye in reading (eye span); it even suggests an approach to literature based on structural grammar.

Marckwardt, Albert H. American English (College Edition). New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1958.
Presents a synthesis of the growth and development of the English language in America, taking into account differences between British and American English, the way American English reflects the American tradition and the American character, and regional and social variations within American English itself.

Sapir, Edward. Culture, Language and Personality. California Cal-5, 1958.
Nine essays from the Selected Writings of Edward Sapir in Language, Culture and Personality, ed. by David G. Mandelbaum (California 1949). The first three essays deal with language, Sapir's principal field of study.

Sapir, Edward. Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1921. (Now in Harvest Books - HB-7)
A classic in the study of language phenomena. First published in 1921 and now outdated in part, it is still full of important insights into the nature of language. Minimum use of technical terms; discussions based to a great extent on English.

Semenovitch, Lev. Thought and Language. Ed. and Tr. by Eugenia Hanfmann and Gertrude Vakar. M.I.T. MIT-29, 1962. Paper.
A study of the relationship between thought and speech changes during the child's intellectual development. Includes analyses of the theories of Piaget and Stern. Originally published in Russian in 1934; in English translation in 1962.

3. LANGUAGE AND RELATED DISCIPLINES (Continued)

Shapiro, Harry L. (ed.). Man, Culture, and Society. Galaxy GB-32, 1956. Paper.
An introduction to anthropology consisting of a series of chapters by different authors and intended for the general reader. Of particular linguistic interest is Harry Hoijer's chapter "Language and Writing."

Stewart, George R. American Ways of Life. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday Dolphin Book Company.
This book grew out of Stewart's attempts as a Fulbright lecturer in Greece to explain his native land and its people to students at the University of Athens. This is a shrewd and penetrating look at the American nation, language, religions, food, drink, clothing, housing, recreating, holidays and art.

Walsh, D.C. What's What: A List of Useful Phrases for the Teacher of Modern Languages, 2nd Edition. New York: Modern Language Association, 1964. Paper.

Whorf: Benjamin Lee (ed.). Language, Thought, and Reality. Selected Writings. M.I.T. MIT-5, 1956. Paper.
This book brings together most of Whorf's writings which are pertinent to his hypothesis that the structure of a person's language influences the way in which he understands reality and behaves with respect to it.

4. PERIODICALS

English Language Teaching. British Council, Great Britain. Published quarterly in London by the British Council, 55 Davis Street.

Language Learning. A Journal of Applied Linguistics. Published by the staff of the English Language Institute, University of Michigan. Appears twice yearly, with two numbers in each issue. See Selected Articles from LL. 1953.

Linguistic Reporter. Published by the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C.

NAFSA Studies and Papers. English Language Series. Published occasionally by the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers in New York. Also brief comments and reviews will appear in the monthly NAFSA Newsletter.

TESOL Quarterly. Published quarterly for the membership of the national organization for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL).

5. TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS

Allen, Virginia French. People in Fact and Fiction: Selections Adapted for Students of English as a Foreign Language. Adapted from Frank F. Stockton, William Saroyan, Carl VanDoren and others. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1957.
Reader for fairly advanced students containing adapted selections of American stories, essays, biographies. About 2000 of Thorndike-Lorge list of the 3000 most frequently used words in written English used, footnotes being used to explain less frequent words beyond this. Each selection has discussion questions to test comprehension, and series of exercises on word study and grammar points followed by related composition exercises. Glossary.

Allen, Virginia French and Robert L. Allen. Review Exercises for English as a Foreign Language. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1961.
For oral and written practice at intermediate level. Part 1: "Exercises in English Vocabulary" on more difficult words from Thorndike and Lorge's first three thousand. Suggestions to teacher on method of presentation.

Binner, Vinal O. American Folktales, 1: A Structured Reader. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1966.
Graded supplementary reader. Contains fifteen simplified reading passages for students with knowledge of basic English structures and 1000-word basic vocabulary. Selected vocabulary, idioms, related words and opposite word lists, which follow readings, provide for vocabulary building. Specific sentence structures, taken from context provide controlled exercises for practice. Conversation questions, write-or-tell exercises, and pronunciation drills with modified Trager-Smith transcriptions follow. Appendixes include table of punctuation marks, guide to pronunciation, glossary of grammatical terms, vocabulary and index.

Black, John W. American Speech for Foreign Students. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1963.
A fairly complete edition for the foreign students, describing American speech and giving exercises in speech and listening. The chapter addressed to the student at the beginning of the text is helpful in presenting the student's problems.

Cabrera, Patricia Heffernan. Audio-Visual English. New York, N.Y.: Collier-Macmillan, Jan. 1969.
Two kits each containing ten filmstrips, records and teacher guides. Treats such situational topics as Telling Time, Counting and Numbers, Color and Clothing, Food and Meals, Prepositions, Occupations and Titles, etc. May be used as a preview, a review, an evaluation, or as an auto-tutoring device by students.

Clarey, M. Elizabeth and Robert J. Dixson. Pronunciation Exercises in English. Rev. Ed. New York: Regents, 1963.
Sounds of English treated in separate five-part sections. Each sound introduced and practiced in words, contrasting parts of words, and whole sentences. Extensive work with phrasing and intonation. Review paragraph with each lesson. Treatment of special problems such as spelling pronunciation also provided. International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) transcription used occasionally.

Croft, Kenneth and A.L. Davis. A Practical Course in English for Foreign Students. Units 1-5. (Formerly the K.C. Drills). Washington, D.C.: English Language Services, 1957.
An ingenious method of representing the Trager-Smith suprasegmentals on a kind of musical scale with four lines for pitch, different size dots for stress. Tapes available.

Da Cruz, Daniel. Men Who Made America. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1962.
A collection of brief biographies of famous men in the history of the United States. Vocabulary and syntax are controlled, and there are accompanying exercises.

Dixson, Robert J. The U.S.A. 2 vol. New York: Regents, 1959-60.
Designed to give simple, readable information about geography, history, people, events, customs and ideals of the U.S. Each book is independent in content and contains exercises for conversation and discussion, comprehension and vocabulary review.

English Language Services. English 900. 13 vols. New York: Collier-Macmillian, 1964-65.
A basic instructional series for adults, consisting of six textbooks, six workbooks, a teacher's manual, and 180 tapes. Each lesson includes a number of basic utterances, intonation practice, questions and answers, substitution drills, conversation and reading practice. Workbooks programmed for self-study. Teacher's Manual contains sections on classroom techniques and lesson planning, comments on each unit's grammar and general word index.

-------. Collier-Macmillan English Readers. 21 vols. New York: Collier-Macmillan, 1965-68.
A series of 21 graded readers progressing in vocabulary level from 500 words to 4,000 words.

Fries, C.C. and Robert Lado. Lessons in Pronunciation, English Sentence Patterns. English Pattern Practice. Vocabulary in Context. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1954.
A set of four volumes relative to content as indicated by titles. Lessons developed as result of a contrastive analysis of the interference between English and Spanish. Charts and tapes available.

5. TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS (Continued)

Gibson, Christine M. and I.A. Richards. First Steps in Reading English 4 vols. New York: Washington Square Press, 1959.
Introduction to reading for beginners. Graded for letter-intake and vocabulary of about 316 words. Stick drawings illustrate meanings.

Harris, David P. Reading Improvement Exercises for Students of English as a Second Language. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1966.
Designed to help high-intermediate and advanced students increase their reading speed and comprehension of English. All exercises to be timed to obtain two scores: speed and accuracy. Key to exercises, and reading time conversion table at end of book. Instructions to teacher on presentation of material and timing of exercises. Student may do own scoring.

Hollander, Sophie. Impressions of the United States. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.
A reading textbook for students at the intermediate-advanced level. The text is a series of letters written by newcomers with various backgrounds describing the individual's reaction to some aspect of the American scene.

McGillivray, James H. People at Work: Readings with Drills and Exercises for Beginners in English. New York: American Book Company, 1961.
Reading selections simplified for beginning students at high school adult levels. Readings followed by drills, exercises and dramatization for dialogue practice. Limited to 600 word vocabulary. Vocabulary at end, with space to fill in equivalents in native language.

Mitchell, Elizabeth Gillian. Beginning American English. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1957.
Twenty-five units of simple conversational English. Each unit contains dialogue, exercises on vocabulary, sentence structure, pronunciation, and review.

National Council of Teachers of English. English for Today. Books 1-6. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962. (Teacher's text included)
Oriented toward the oral-direct teaching method. Vocabulary is well controlled. Reading matter is minimal. Emphasis is on oral drills giving practice in an inductive understanding of structure and grammar. With supplementary training aids, such as flash cards, the text is suitable for use in large classes.

Paratore, Angela. Conversational English: English as a Second Language. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1961.
Designed to give supplementary aural-oral practice to adult non-beginning students. Emphasis on selected points of grammar, especially constructions and usages employing auxiliary verbs. Group recitation, memorization, and repetitive drills. Each of 30 lessons begins with dialogue drill, dialogue notes and variety of exercises. Accent marks and arrows indicate stress and intonation.

5. TEXTBOOKS AND MATERIALS (Continued)

Praninskas, Jean. Rapid Review of English Grammar. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1961.
A review text for use by foreign students and others with some background in grammar, English or otherwise.

Prentice-Hall International, Inc. Selected Stories by American Authors. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: 1962.
Vocabulary levels begin at 2000 words.

Reader's Digest Services. Reader's Digest Readings: English as a Second Language. Books 1-6. Pleasantville, New York, 1964.
Series of edited and abridged readings from Reader's Digest mainly for adults. Base vocabulary restricted to about 1000 words, each volume adding about 350 new words. Vocabulary exercises and comprehension questions at end of each reading. Each volume has glossary and answer key.

Silver Burdett. English: Your New Language. New York: Silver Burdett, 1966.
A large "how to" section in the Teacher's Guide with "extended" teacher's notes imprinted on student's pages.

Taylor, Grant (Consulting ed.) Saxson Series in English as a Second Language. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956-65.
Graded series of texts, readers and workbooks designed for adult students. Beginning series include Learning American English.

Trager, Edith Crowell and Sara Cook Henderson. Pronunciation Drills for Learners of English. The P.D.'s. Washington, D.C.: English Language Services, 1956.
For adult students, based on Trager-Smith analysis of English phonology. Vowels treated first, then stess, intonation and consonants. Each sound first drilled alone, then in minimal pairs, and in short sentences. All words used are of high frequency, but stress in on pronunciation rather than meaning. Section on spelling in relation to phonemic systems.

Wright, Audrey L. and James H. McGillivray. Let's Learn English. 3rd Ed. New York: American Book Company, 1966.
Emphasis is on oral English. Good beginning lessons in pronunciation. Vocabulary and patterns of structure taught in context. Every fourth lesson is a review. Latter part of book can be used with intermediate students.

6. STANDARDIZED TESTS

American University Language Center Tests. Washington, D.C.: Educational Services, 1961.
A series of diagnostic tests: 1. English Usage, 2. Aural/Oral rating, 3. Vocabulary and Reading Tests, and 4. Listening Test. Used for United States State Department Grantees and for college-oriented students.

6. STANDARDIZED TESTS (Continued)

Burnett, Richard W. Basic Reading Inventory. Bensenville, Illinois: Scholastic Testing Service, 1966.
A basic reading test for illiterates and up to fourth-or fifth-grade literacy level. Identifies basic skill strengths. Part 1, Vocabulary; Part 2, Ability to hear beginning sounds; Part 3, Synonymous reading; Part 4, Synonymous listening; and Part 5, Reading context and listening.

California Achievement Test, 11th Edition, California Test Bureau, 1957.
Scores are given in the areas of reading, arithmetic, and language, grades one through fourteen. Performance is given by grade placement and in profile form. Percentile and age norms are provided. These tests are useful with advanced English as a Second Language students to determine their readiness for high school subjects.

Davis, A.L. Diagnostic Test for Students of English as a Second Language. Washington D.C.: Educational Services, 1953.
A usage test prepared by the American University Language Center. Section 1 tests general grammar exclusive of verb forms. Section 2 tests verbs. Section 3 tests idiomatic vocabulary. Used to show readiness for college work.

English Examination for Foreign Students: Including a Test of Non-Verbal Reasoning. Princeton, New Jersey.: Educational Testing Services, 1947.

Hill, L.A. and R.D.S. Fielden. Vocabulary Tests and Exercises for Overseas Students. London: Oxford University Press, 1962.

King, Harold V. and Russell N. Campbell. An English Reading Test for Students of English as a Foreign Language. Washington, D.C.: English Language Services, 1956.
Designed for college oriented students.

Lado, Robert. Test of Aural Comprehension (Forms A,B,C). Ann Arbor, Michigan: English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1946.*

Lado, Robert. Test of Aural Comprehension: Examiner's Materials, Description of Norms, Forms A,B,C. Ann Arbor, Michigan: English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1957.*

Upshur, John, Leslie Palmer, John Harris, and Geraldine May. The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, Form A. Ann Arbor, Michigan: English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1962.*

Upshur, John, Geraldine May, Miho Tanaka, and Randolph Thrasher. The Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, Form B. Revised. Ann Arbor, Michigan: English Language Institute, University of Michigan, 1965.*

* Available from Follett's Bookstore, 322 South State Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48108.